

# Chaos and Determinism: A Mathematical and Computational Analysis of the Lorenz System and Logistic Map

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## Abstract

Chaos Theory is the study that looks at systems that follow clear rules but exhibit intricate and unpredictable behavior. This strange idea that simple equations can have unpredictable and erratic results captivated me. Thus, I decided to study two famous examples of chaotic systems: the Lorenz Attractor, which mimics the movement of air in the atmosphere, and the logistic map, which shows how populations grow over time. Through Python simulation, I was able to get a close-up look at these systems' erratic behavior. I also examined their sensitivity to subtle changes by creating bifurcation diagrams and calculating Lyapunov exponents.

## 1 Introduction

Chaos Theory shows how entities follow tight rules nonetheless act in strange and unexpected ways- even negligible change in the initial stage makes a huge difference. We can accurately simulate things but when we try to anticipate them days or weeks in advance, we are typically entirely incorrect by a huge margin. There's a fundamental well-known idea known as the "Butterfly effect" which states that a butterfly's wing-flapping in Brazil can set off a tornado in Texas. In this work, I have examined two fundamental chaotic systems that exemplify this idea:

- The Lorenz attractor, which uses three differential equations to model atmospheric convection and creates a beautiful, butterfly-shaped pattern;
- The logistic map, a simple equation used to model population growth that, depending on the values you plug in, suddenly shifts from stable behavior to complete chaos.

I have used computational tools to simulate these systems showing how small changes to the initial conditions can produce entirely different results. This project reinterprets the mathematics of chaos and demonstrates its practical application to secure cryptography systems and weather forecasting issues. I hope that this paper serves as a useful tool for anyone who is interested in understanding this topic.

## 2 History of Chaos Theory

### 2.1 Early Foundations (17th–19th century)

The mathematical and philosophical foundations of chaos theory are determinism and causality arguments. Isaac Newton's laws of motion (1687) and Pierre Simon Laplace's (1778) deterministic view proposed that accurate knowledge of initial conditions could predict the future state of any system. Later, it was challenged by chaos theory. An important turning point was in 1889 when Henri Poincaré worked on the three body problem and found that "homoclinic tangles," which was an early understanding of sensitivity to initial conditions discovering it could result in unpredictable behavior from celestial mechanics.

### 2.2 Mid-20th Century: Nonlinear Dynamics and Early Chaos

In the 1940s–1950s, mathematicians like Mary Cartwright and John Littlewood studied nonlinear oscillators. They observed unpredictable behavior that defied linear predictions. Andrey Kolmogorov (1954), a mathematician, proposed stable orbits in the chaotic systems, which was later formalized by his student Vladimir Arnold (1964) as the "KAM theorem," which outlined the conditions in which chaos occurs in Hamiltonian systems.

## 2.3 Birth of Modern Chaos Theory (1960s–1970s)

Meteorologist and Mathematician Edward Lorenz discovered the butterfly effect in 1961, which became a key cornerstone of chaos theory. His 1963 model of Lorenz system revealed strange attractors and deterministic chaos. Simultaneously, Stephen Smale’s work on dynamical systems introduced the mathematical concept of chaotic attractors.

## 2.4 Late 20th Century: Expansion and Applications

By the 1980s and 1990s, chaos theory had influenced fields such as economics (market volatility), physics (turbulence), and biology (cardiac arrhythmias). In addition, Benoît Mandelbrot’s invention of fractal geometry inspired and led to the development of tools for visualizing chaotic structures as well as advancements in computing. This made it possible to examine nonlinear systems in greater detail.

# 3 Lorenz System

In 1963, Edward N. Lorenz introduced a simplified model of atmospheric convection that gave rise to one of the first known examples of deterministic chaos. The Lorenz system is a set of three coupled, nonlinear differential equations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \sigma(y - x) \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = x(\rho - z) - y \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = xy - \beta z \tag{3}$$

where  $x, y, z$  are state variables representing idealized physical quantities related to convection (e.g., velocity and temperature differences), and  $\sigma, \rho, \beta$  are positive real parameters controlling the system’s dynamics.

## 3.1 Physical Interpretation of Parameters

I.  **$\sigma$  (Prandtl number):** This parameter is the ratio of kinematic viscosity to thermal diffusivity. It determines how quickly the  $x$ -component (related to fluid velocity) adjusts to changes in  $y$  (related to horizontal temperature gradients).

- Larger  $\sigma$ : faster relaxation of  $x$  to match  $y$
- Affects stiffness of the system and the shape of trajectories in phase space
- Typical value in Lorenz’s simulation:  $\sigma = 10$

II.  **$\rho$  (Normalized Rayleigh number):** This is the main control parameter for the onset of convection. It represents a normalized form of the Rayleigh number:

$$\rho = \frac{Ra}{Rc}$$

where  $Ra$  is the Rayleigh number and  $Rc$  is its critical value at which convection begins. Hence,  $\rho = 1$  is the threshold of convection.

- $\rho < 1$ : the origin is the only fixed point (no convection)
- $\rho > 1$ : two symmetric fixed points emerge (steady convection)
- Increasing  $\rho$  can destabilize these fixed points and lead to chaos
- Typical value in Lorenz’s simulation:  $\rho = 28$

III.  $\beta$  (**Geometric factor**): This parameter is related to the geometry of the convective fluid layer and controls the rate at which the vertical temperature profile returns to equilibrium.

- Larger  $\beta$ : faster decay in the  $z$ -direction
- Influences the stability of the fixed points and the vertical structure of the attractor
- Typical value in Lorenz's simulation:  $\beta = \frac{8}{3}$

### 3.2 Bifurcation and Onset of Chaos

The system exhibits a bifurcation at  $\rho = 1$ .

- For  $\rho < 1$ , the origin  $(0, 0, 0)$  is a globally attracting fixed point.
- For  $\rho > 1$ , two new non-trivial symmetric fixed points appear:

$$(x, y, z) = \left( \pm\sqrt{\beta(\rho - 1)}, \pm\sqrt{\beta(\rho - 1)}, \rho - 1 \right).$$

These points are initially stable, but they lose stability through a Hopf bifurcation as  $\rho$  increases further. The critical value at which this bifurcation occurs is:

$$\rho_{\text{Hopf}} = \frac{\sigma(\sigma + \beta + 3)}{\sigma - \beta - 1}.$$

This inequality defines the transition range:

$$1 < \rho < \rho_{\text{Hopf}} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{Stable non-trivial fixed points.}$$

Beyond  $\rho_{\text{Hopf}}$ , the fixed points become unstable, and the system may exhibit a strange attractor, the well-known Lorenz attractor signifying the onset of deterministic chaos.

### 3.3 Jacobian and Local Stability Analysis

To analyze the local stability near its fixed points, we compute the Jacobian matrix of the Lorenz system:

$$J(x, y, z) = \begin{bmatrix} -\sigma & \sigma & 0 \\ \rho - z & -1 & -x \\ y & x & -\beta \end{bmatrix}.$$

At the origin  $(0, 0, 0)$ , the Jacobian becomes:

$$J(0, 0, 0) = \begin{bmatrix} -\sigma & \sigma & 0 \\ \rho & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\beta \end{bmatrix}.$$

The eigenvalues of this matrix determine the local behavior near the origin:

- For  $\rho < 1$ , all eigenvalues have negative real parts, so the origin is a stable fixed point.
- When  $\rho > 1$ , one eigenvalue becomes positive, making the origin unstable, and new fixed points emerge.

Evaluating the Jacobian at the non-trivial fixed points can also show when they become unstable, such as through a Hopf bifurcation. This highlights how important the parameter values are in creating complex behavior in the system.

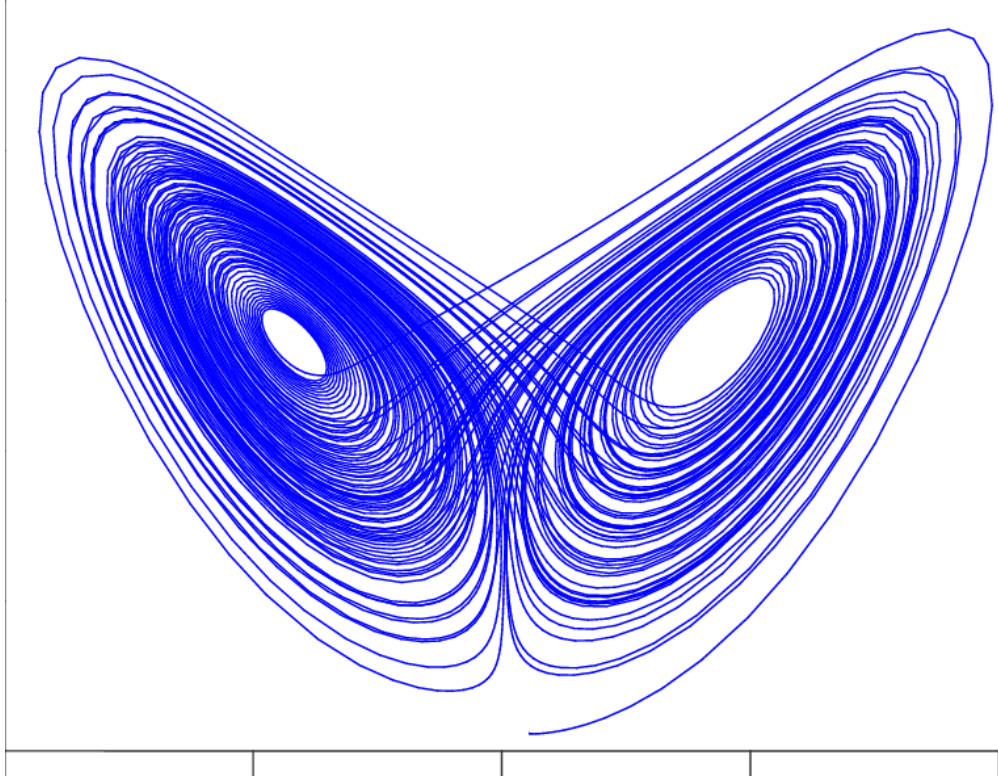


Figure 1: The Lorenz attractor, showing chaotic trajectories in phase space for  $\sigma = 10$ ,  $\rho = 28$ ,  $\beta = 8/3$ .

### 3.4 Lorenz Attractor

The Lorenz attractor is a specific solution of the Lorenz system that appears only for certain parameter values (classically  $\sigma = 10$ ,  $\rho = 28$ ,  $\beta = \frac{8}{3}$ ). It represents a unique butterfly wing shape: two lobes with trajectories switching unpredictably, a strange attractor, which is a fractal set in phase space where trajectories settle into an aperiodic orbit.

The Lorenz attractor beautifully shows how a deterministic system can produce highly intricate, unpredictable behaviors. It also shows how sensitivity to initial conditions determines the future of the system in chaotic regimes.

## 4 Logistic Map

The logistic map is a first-order difference equation originally introduced in the context of population biology modeling the evolution of a normalized population over discrete time steps. It is a simpler yet equally profound example of chaos as it captures discrete population growth. It is defined by the recurrence relation:

$$x_{t+1} = rx_t(1 - x_t), \quad (4)$$

where  $x_t$  is the population of the  $t$ -th generation and  $r \geq 0$  is the growth rate.

At first glance, it's just a recurrence relation for population growth. Nonetheless, as we adjust the parameter  $r$ , the simple equation begins to show one of the richest and most intricate structures and patterns in dynamical systems.

The population level at any instance is a function of the growth rate parameter  $r$  and the previous generation population level. The population will go extinct if the growth rate is set too low. As growth rate increases, the system tends toward a stable equilibrium, enters a periodic cycle, or eventually exhibits chaotic fluctuations.

## 4.1 Bifurcation Analysis

Bifurcation analysis is a technique that examines how a system’s qualitative behavior changes as parameters are varied. Its main goal is to find critical points, or “bifurcations,” where the dynamics of the system significantly alter, such as when stability changes or new behaviors appear.

In the case of the logistic map, the parameter of interest is the growth rate  $r$ .

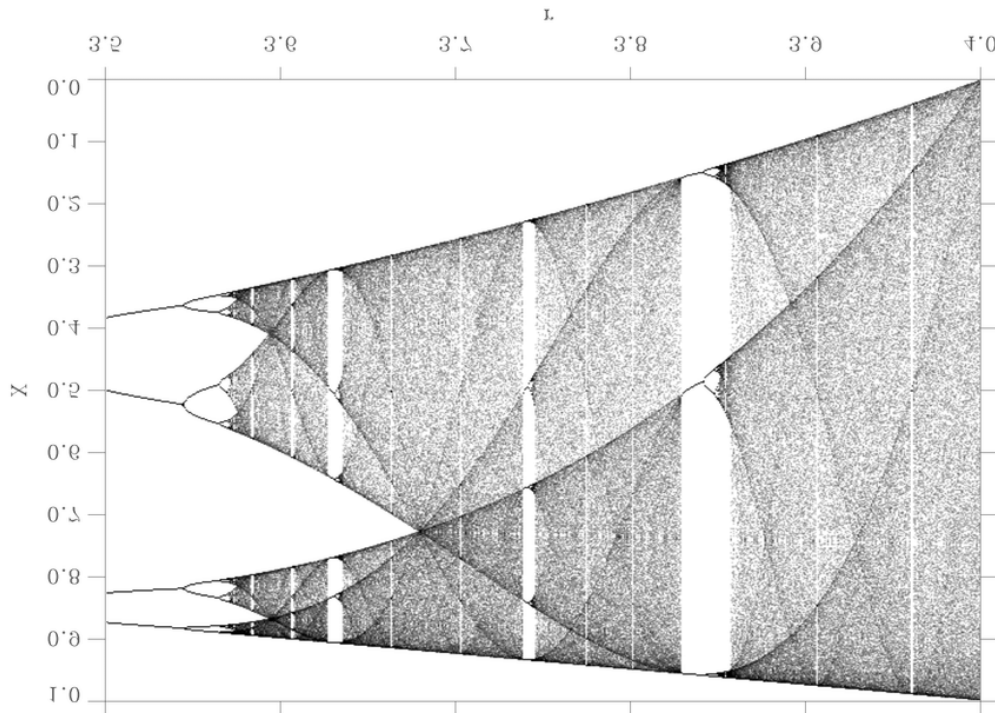


Figure 2: Bifurcation diagram of the logistic map, showing period-doubling transitions to chaos. Windows of periodic behavior (e.g.,  $r \approx 3.83$ ) are visible within the chaotic regime.

When  $r \in [0, 1]$ , the population quickly drops to zero (i.e., extinction). As  $r$  increases past 1, the system after some time stabilizes at a fixed value. This continues until about  $r \approx 3$ , where the population no longer stabilizes at a certain value but begins to oscillate between two numbers, which is the birth of period-doubling, a signature pathway to chaos.

Increasing  $r$  further, the system doubles again, oscillating between four values, then eight, sixteen, and so on. These bifurcations occur rapidly, with the doublings occurring closer and closer to the next. The doublings occur following a universal pattern at the rate of approximately 4.669, also known as the Feigenbaum constant, it is not a random number but a deep property of nonlinear systems undergoing period doubling routes.

Beyond  $r \approx 3.57$ , the system becomes chaotic, however not like complete randomness. Yet at precise values like  $r \approx 3.83$  (period-3 window), the system enters periodicity like tiny windows hidden within the storm of chaos. These windows aren’t random, they repeat periodically like we saw earlier, but on a smaller scale, and this is exactly what makes them fractal, sharing the same infinite complexity we see in the Mandelbrot set.

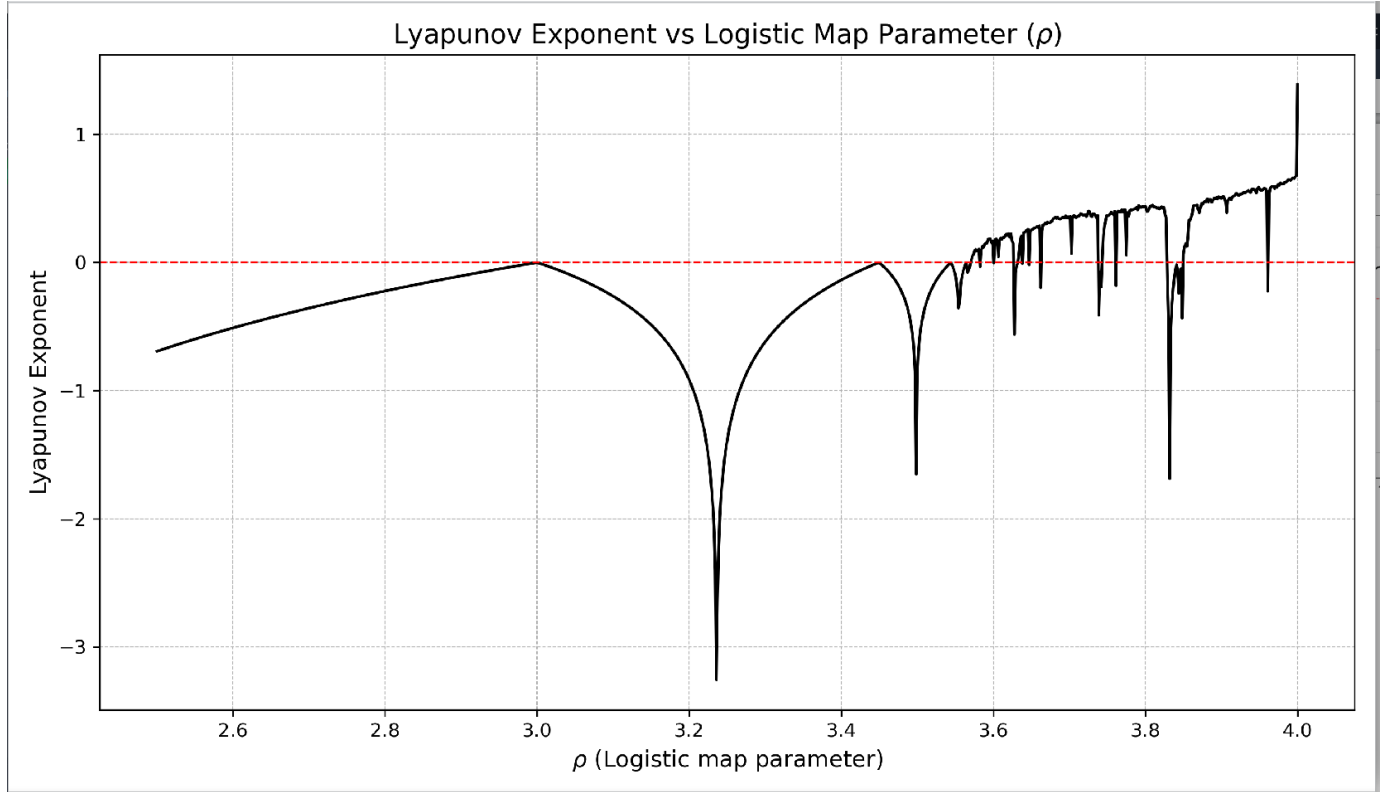


Figure 3: Variation of the Lyapunov exponent with logistic map parameter ( $\rho$ ).

## 4.2 Lyapunov Exponents and Sensitivity to Initial Conditions

The bifurcation diagram of the logistic map visually reveals how a system transitions from order to chaos. But to measure the transition more precisely, we have Lyapunov exponent. Lyapunov exponent measures how infinitesimally close trajectories behave over time.

At its heart, the Lyapunov exponent  $\lambda$  measures the average rate of separation or convergence of nearby trajectories in the phase space. If the two initial points in the system are extremely close, the exponent tells us how quickly they move apart and evolve nothing like the initial start prediction.

For a small initial separation  $\delta_0$ , the evolution of the distance between two nearby trajectories can be approximated as

$$|\delta_n| \approx |\delta_0|e^{\lambda n}, \quad (5)$$

where  $\lambda$  is the Lyapunov exponent and  $\delta_n$  is the separation after  $n$  iterations. The sign of  $\lambda$  conveys fundamental information about the system:

- $\lambda < 0$ : Trajectories converge to a fixed point or stable periodic orbit.
- $\lambda = 0$ : The system is at a bifurcation point or exhibits neutral stability.
- $\lambda > 0$ : Trajectories diverge exponentially, indicating chaos and sensitive dependence on initial conditions.

Lyapunov exponent provides a precise, quantitative criterion for identifying the onset of chaotic behavior.

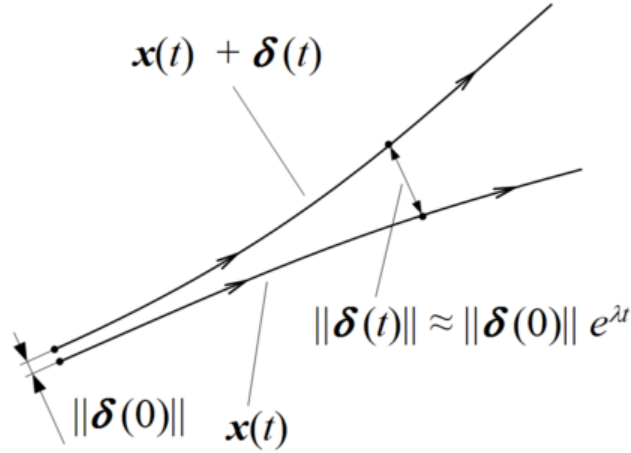


Figure 4: Divergence of nearby initial conditions ( $x_0 = 0.5$  vs.  $0.5001$ ) in the chaotic regime ( $r = 3.9$ ).

#### 4.2.1 Derivation of the Lyapunov Exponent

Consider a one-dimensional discrete-time dynamical system described by the iteration

$$x_{n+1} = f(x_n), \quad f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad (6)$$

where  $f \in C^1$  is continuously differentiable. Let  $x_0$  be a reference initial condition, and consider a nearby trajectory starting from  $x_0 + \delta_0$ , with  $\delta_0$  infinitesimally small. The separation between the two trajectories after  $n$  iterations is defined by

$$\delta_n = f^n(x_0 + \delta_0) - f^n(x_0), \quad (7)$$

where  $f^n$  denotes the  $n$ -fold composition of  $f$ . For sufficiently small  $\delta_0$ , we can linearize the map around  $x_0$ , yielding

$$\delta_n \approx \delta_0 \cdot \frac{d}{dx} f^n(x_0). \quad (8)$$

By repeated application of the chain rule, the derivative of the  $n$ -th iterate is given by

$$\frac{d}{dx} f^n(x_0) = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} f'(x_i), \quad \text{where } x_i = f^i(x_0). \quad (9)$$

Thus, the magnitude of the separation becomes

$$|\delta_n| \approx |\delta_0| \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} |f'(x_i)|. \quad (10)$$

Assuming exponential behavior of the form  $|\delta_n| \sim |\delta_0| e^{\lambda n}$ , we obtain

$$\lambda \approx \frac{1}{n} \ln \left( \frac{|\delta_n|}{|\delta_0|} \right) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)|. \quad (11)$$

Taking the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we arrive at the definition of the Lyapunov exponent:

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)|. \quad (12)$$

This quantity  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  characterizes the average exponential rate of divergence (or convergence) of nearby trajectories. A positive Lyapunov exponent indicates chaotic behavior, while a negative exponent implies asymptotic stability. The special case  $\lambda = 0$  typically corresponds to neutral stability or bifurcation points.

**Formal Statement.** Let  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R})$ , and let  $x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$  be a discrete dynamical system with initial condition  $x_0$ . The Lyapunov exponent is defined as

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)|, \quad \text{with } x_i = f^i(x_0), \quad (13)$$

provided the limit exists.

- $\lambda > 0$ : Exponential divergence of nearby trajectories (chaos).
- $\lambda < 0$ : Convergence to stable periodic or fixed points.
- $\lambda = 0$ : Marginal or neutral stability.

**Example (Logistic Map):** For the map  $f(x) = 4x(1 - x)$ , we have  $f'(x) = 4(1 - 2x)$ , and the Lyapunov exponent is given by

$$\lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |4(1 - 2x_i)| \approx \ln 2 \approx 0.693. \quad (14)$$

This positive exponent confirms the presence of chaotic dynamics under ergodic sampling for typical  $x_0 \in [0, 1]$ .

### 4.3 Applications of Chaos Theory

Chaos theory has profound applications across various fields. Due to its ability to describe complex and unpredictable systems, it has been widely used as a revolutionary tool by scientists, engineers, and experts to understand natural and artificial processes.

#### I Meteorology and Weather Prediction

Chaos theory initially originated from the work of Lorenz in meteorology. It explains why weather systems are difficult to predict over long periods of time. Although long-term weather forecasting is really challenging and unpredictable due to sensitive dependence on initial conditions, chaos theory has improved short-term weather modeling and understanding the dynamics of the weather.

#### II Biology and Medicine

There are many irregularities in heart rhythms, brain activity, and population dynamics in biology. For instance, abnormal heart rhythms can be studied through chaotic models, providing better diagnostics and treatment opportunities. Likewise, neural networks of the brain exhibit chaotic behavior influencing learning and memory. Also, population modeling uses chaos to describe the fluctuation in population, helping to understand species survival and extinction patterns.

#### III Economics and Finance

Chaos theory helps to analyze market dynamics, detect hidden patterns, and understand seemingly random economic behaviors. Economists use it to predict market crashes, cycles, and trends. In addition, chaos theory also helps predict the future of the stock markets.

#### IV Engineering and Control Systems

Engineers use chaos theory to assist in designing systems that are robust against unpredictable changes. Chaos-based algorithms are used in control systems, robotics, and electronic circuits. For example, chaotic signals can be used to secure communications and encryption, utilizing their complexity to enhance system security.



## v Physics and Quantum Mechanics

In physics, chaos theory helps to describe turbulent fluid flow, plasma behavior, and certain quantum systems. It provides insights into how deterministic systems can lead to unpredictable, complex results, bridging classical and quantum physics. It can be useful for understanding fundamental physical processes and developing new technologies.

## vi Other Areas

Chaos theory has found its way beyond hard science. In fields such as psychology, where it models nonlinear dynamics of thought processes emotions and behavioral responses; Social Science, where it is used to understand unpredictable group dynamics and societal changes caused by small disturbances or changes; art, architecture and mixture, music, chaotic theory is used to generate patterns, texture and composition reflecting intricate structures. These multidisciplinary applications highlights the theory's universal relevance, which goes beyond its mathematical roots.

## 5 Conclusion

Chaos theory reveals a profound truth that even simple, basic straightforward-based rules can produce highly complex and unpredictable behavior. We saw how nonlinear dynamics lead to chaos through the study of the Lorenz attractor and the Logistic map. Whether it's the butterfly effect in the Lorenz model or the way how a single parameter can drive a system from stability to periodic oscillations and eventually to chaos, with Lyapunov exponent quantifying the transition.

Nonetheless, this isn't just abstract math concepts as it goes beyond simple mathematical concepts. These ideas appear in everything from stock markets to weather trends to transmission of diseases. Above all, it teaches us that uncertainty isn't a weakness and flaw, it is a feature of the rules. And by being aware of those guidelines, we can design systems that can adapt without breaking even when chaos breaks out.

In the end, chaos theory bridges order and randomness. It demonstrates that beneath apparent disorder there lies intricate, beautiful structures. As computational power grows, so does our capacity to model and learn from chaotic systems. This would provide new ways to navigate the complexity of both natural and engineered artificial worlds. This exploration underscores and highlights the beauty of mathematics in uncovering the universe's hidden rhythms, where even the flutter of a butterfly's wings movement can alter our perception of dynamics.

## 6 Author's Note

I wrote this paper because chaos theory really terrified and fascinated me: determinism doesn't mean predictability. The more I think, still, the more I believe that the universe is built on fractals. Infinite layers of self-similarity. We pretend randomness is more of like an exception, but what if it's the rule and the reality? A missed bus, a missed call, a single decimal place rounded off, and suddenly everything seems random. What if we are trapped in this randomness, and I do see life being the same way.

As a 12th grade student, this topic I explored purely out of curiosity, without formal guidance. I spent many long hours reading, researching, simulating (I built upon existing work, not wholly myself), and making sense of concepts far beyond the classroom. If you find mistakes here (of course you will find many!), I apologize. They are proof I have only scratched the surface. If these pages spark your curiosity, or make some expert chuckle at my naive enthusiasm, then this project was worthwhile. And I have realized the real magic lies in knowing there's always more to discover.

I would love to hear from you if anything here resonates with you whether it's a correction, a common fascination, a typo error, just your thoughts on chaos, or even casual conversation ... I'm all ears.  
Email:johnprakashmagar@gmail.com

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## 8 Appendix A: Code Availability

The Python scripts implementing the Lorenz attractor and logistic map simulations, along with the bifurcation diagrams and Lyapunov exponent calculations, are publicly available at:

<https://github.com/johnunix/Chaos-Theory/tree/main/Simulation>

Readers can access the code for reproducing the results presented in this paper.

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